DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 287 279 FL 015 929

AUTHOR	Bidot, Haydee Marie; And Others
TITLE	Developing an ESL Curriculum for a Special Population.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	Apr 86
GRANT	G008302685
NOTE	47p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Bilingual/Bicultural Education Conference (15th, Chicago, IL, April 1-5, 1986). Appended chart may be marginally legible due to small, broken type.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Information Analyses (070)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*American Indian Education; American Indian Languages; Bilingual Education Programs; *Choctaw; *Contrastive Linguistics; *Curriculum Development; Educational Strategies; *English (Second Language); *Interference (Language); Second Language Learning
IDENTIFIERS	*Mississippi Band of Choctaw (Tribe)

ABSTRACT

In designing a curriculum to assist children in learning English as a second language (ESL), a thorough understanding of the differences between the first and second languages is essential. With such an understanding, problems and concepts that may cause language interference and learning difficulties can be identified and an appropriate curriculum that will best meet the needs of bilingual children can be designed. The recent low achievement of the children of the Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians is due in part to lack of English language skills for academic or personal communication. An ESL curriculum has been developed to enhance the children's English language competence while encouraging retention of the Choctaw language and Choctaw cultural traditions. A formal evaluation was performed through the administration of the Language Assessment Scales (LAS) to 50 kindergarten through third-grade students twice a year over a three-year period. Through item analysis of the results, together with analysis of the children's speech and writing, phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic features in the two languages that were suspected of causing interference in English acquisition were identified and targeted in the curriculum, which is designed for three levels of English proficiency: non-English speakers, limited English speakers, and fluent English speakers. An intensive study of the Choctaw language and how it differs from English allowed the incorporation of instructional concepts aimed at enhancing the children's language skills affected by the absence or difference of particular structures in each language, and the concepts were selected based on the functional and meaningful applications of English in the children's environment. Appendices contain item analyses of LAS scores, a graph showing LAS totals for all schools for fall, 1983, by levels of proficiency, and a fold-out chart showing the ESL curriculum design for Choctaw children grouped by proficiency levels for the first through the fourth nine-week term. (MSE)

ED287279

DEVELOPING AN ESL CURRICULUM FOR A SPECIAL POPULATION

by

Haydee Marie Bidot

Melvin E. Franks

Thallis Lewis

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Haydee Marie Bidot

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

(A paper presented at the 15th Annual International Bilingual/Bicultural Education Conference, Chicago, Il., April 1-5, 1986)

This presentation was made possible by a grant from the Department of Education, Title VII, Basic Project in Bilingual Education. Grant Number G008302685.

FL 015939

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

The Choctaw language is the speech of a particular ethnic, cultural group: the Choctaw Indians. Research has shown that cultural differences of minority language students influence second language acquisition. (Krashen, 1981; Robson, 1981) Young (1967) notes that "culture is more than a system of material and non-material elements that can be listed, catalogued and classified . . . In its totality, a cultural system is a frame of reference that shapes and governs one's picture of the world around him." (pp. 3-4) Therefore, the first consideration of this work is to provide a perspective of the environment of the population under study, the Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians. Subsequently, selected linguistic features of the Choctaw language are related to differences with the English language. Recognition of these differences paves the way for the design of a curriculum which aims to expand and facilitate the acquisition of English (L2) by Choctaw children.

Introduction

The Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians is comprised of eight communities which are spread over the east central part of Mississippi. The area has been

described as a rural, remote trust land that due to its rough clay-based land and its location in an economically depressed region of Mississippi, is isolated, barren, nonagricultural and underdeveloped. (Fortune, 1985) There are approximately 5000 members of the tribe. Ninety percent are pure blood Choctaw and speak their native language fluently. The center of tribal government is located in Pearl River, a community near Philadelphia, Mississippi. There are a total of eight communities on the reservation. Each community has a community center and a health clinic, with only six having a school.

As with other Indian tribes the Choctaw reservation does not have a tax base from which to generate additional funds. Further, the reservation is located in a rural area of the state which has the lowest per capita income in the Nation. Except for the recent efforts of Chief Phillip Martin and the tribal government to develop an industrial park which supports several industries, the economic picture for the Choctaw people would be quite bleak. Even with the rise in employment, the Choctaw people are heavily dependent upon the federal government for the funding of educational services.

The schools on the reservation are operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). There are five elementary schools located in various communities and a

comprehensive K-12 school located at Pearl River. The Choctaw Department of Education, a tribally developed and managed organization, is the recipient of several federally funded programs which are implemented in the BIA schools.

A primary "concern of the Choctaw Department of Education (CDE) is the persisting low academic achievement of the Choctaw children. In the recent Choctaw School Study an analysis of the children's California Achievement Test scores revealed that on the reading and language batteries the upper quartile students were showing only a three-fifths of a year gain, while the lower quartile were achieving only two-fifths. A further look at the language patterns in the home indicates that eighty-four percent of the households reported speaking Choctaw and English while fifty-five percent speak only Choctaw. (Fortune, 1985) The lack of English fluency is also demonstrated by the fact that ninety-eight percent of the children entering school are Non-English speakers as measured by the Language Assessment Scales (LAS).

Although the lack of English fluency is not the only contributing factor to low student achievement, its influence cannot be ignored. Fortune (1982) states that several factors contribute to low achievement scores where the primary language of a student body is not the same as the majority culture. This language problem is

confounded with other compensatory education indicators such as poverty, broken homes, and low parental education. In an attempt to help remedy this problem the tribe applied for and received a Title VII grant to implement an intensive English as a Second Language (ESL) program. For the past three years the Choctaw Department of Education has operated this grant for children enrolled in kindergarten through third grade in three of the BIA elementary schools.

According to the Title VII proposal, the Choctaw children have an identified need for developing their language skills in order to be academically competitive and for their interpersonal communicative skills. "English proficiency will be described to students as a necessary competency for successfully living among a majority society whose language is not Choctaw . . . the value of English language proficiency as a means of:

1) receiving the best possible education;

2) being able to extract professional and consumer services; and

3) being entertained via media." (Rogers, 1982)

The purpose of the ESL program is to enhance the children's linguistic competence in English (L2) while at the same time encourage retention of Choctaw (L1) and their cultural traditions. "The decision to adopt an intensive ESL model as the bilingual model for Choctaw Bilingual Education was accompanied by a mandate that

the approach be integrated into the classes in a manner which does not devalue Choctaw language and culture." (Rogers, 1982) The program has three primary components:

1) Instruction;

2) Teacher training; and,

3) Parent involvement.

The program staff consists of a director, a secretary, an Accountability Specialist, three ESL Specialists, and three Home-School Coordinators. The Home-School Coordinators keep the community informed of activities taking place in the classroom. They provide assistance to parents in understanding the purpose of the ESL program, serve as translators for the ESL Specialists, and coordinate monthly meetings. At these meetings the ESL Specialists provide assistance to parents by offering strategies for helping their children improve their language skills. The Home-School Coordinators have the additional role of conducting culturally oriented activities in the classroom which provide opportunity for use of Choctaw (L1).

The ESL Specialists conduct daily instruction in the classroom. In addition they provide regular classroom teachers with materials and strategies used in second language acquisition for incorporation into the classrooms. The ESL Specialists also provide parents with techniques for helping the children at home. They strive to create in the parents an awareness of the

importance of developing the language skills for academic achievement and the need for parental involvement. The ESL Specialists are responsible for maintaining all pertinent student records. This includes: progress reports, individual assessments, IPLPs, computer-assisted instruction logs, parent training minutes, and, teacher training activities.

Language Differences Between Choctaw and English

One of the first things that became apparent to the ESL staff as the program started was the lack of appropriate classroom instructional materials and the need for designing a curriculum that would address the unique needs of the Choctaw children. There have been many studies on American Indian languages but very few on the Choctaw language. The few studies on Choctaw primarily concentrate on structural analysis of the language. Some studies have been done comparing English with Choctaw; however, most of this research (ie. McCardle & Walton, 1984) is in the field of speech. No attempt has been made to generate strategies for enhancing language skills in English by attacking the identified areas of weakness.

One of the first steps toward designing a curriculum for Choctaw children was to study the Choctaw

language. A comparison of Choctaw to English was made to identify areas of dissimilarities causing language interference. Instructional concepts aimed at enhancing the children's language skills affected by the absence of, or difference of, particular structures in L1 and L2 were identified. Careful consideration was given to the selection of these concepts due to the need for functional and meaningful applications of English in the children's environment as children need to experience the new concepts and words that are introduced. In designing a curriculum for students using English as their second language it is vital that activities be conducive to experiential learning emphasizing natural language usage.

Phonological Differences

Several reasons can be given for the difficulties the children experience with the phonemes of English. The Choctaw language has some phonemes which are not present in the English language. At the same time some of the sounds of the English language are absent in Choctaw.

A look at the Mississippi Choctaw School Orthography, developed by the Bilingual Education for Choctaws of Mississippi (BECOM), will give the reader a better understanding of the symbols and sound

correspondences. (Lewis, 1981)

Letters	Names
A, a	á h
Ą, ą	á h halįbis
B, b	bí h
Č, č	čí h
F, f	fí h
H, h	hí h
I, i	í h
Į, į	í h halįbis
K, k	kí h
L, l	lí h
Ł, ł	łí h
M, m	mí h
N, n	ní h
O, o	ó h
Ǫ, ǫ	ó h halįbis
P, p	pí h
S, s	sí h
Š, š	ší h
T, t	tí h
W, w	wí h
Y, y	yí h

It can be observed from looking at the list, that

Choctaw does not have an equivalent for the sounds of /th/, both voiced and unvoiced, /d/, /g/, /j/, /r/, /v/, /x/, /z/, /æ/, /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /ʊ/, and /ɔ/. Conversely, English does not have equivalents for ɬ, or the nasal vowels (a̰, ḭ, o̰). Considering that there is some dialectic variation, there will be some difference in pronunciation.

Selected phonetic rules present in the Choctaw are (Nicklas, 1974; Broadwell, 1986):

1) Before sh and ch, h has an sh off-glide.
2) When one word ends in a vowel or h and the following word begins with a vowel, a contraction may occur.
3) Some sounds are lost in some predicate expressions and phrases.
4) A word may begin with a long or short vowel, or a consonant followed by a vowel. No word begins with two consonants except through deletion.
5) Any short vowel may end a word, but no long vowel may end a word.
6) With some exceptions only nouns may end with a consonant (p, k, f, s, sh, h, n, l)where s, n, l are rare.
7) An h may assimilate to a preceding or following p, t, or k.
8) Initial h may be lost, especially if followed by a.

9) There is a tendency for all vowels in a word to be the same.

As the Choctaw child is introduced to the English sound system some problems are experienced when producing several consonant sounds (McCardle & Walton, 1984):

1) Neither /th/, voiced or unvoiced, are present in the Choctaw sound system. Instead they have /t/ which causes the students to distort or substitute both /th/ sounds;
2) Devoicing of final consonant sounds;
3) Devoicing of initial /v/ and /z/;
4) Lateralization of fricatives (/s/,/z/); and,
5) Dental production of alveolar sounds.

The data collected from language samples and students' performance on the LAS sections on minimal pairs and phonemes supports the argument that these phonological differences in the two languages are interfering with the child's auditory discrimination and therefore production of these phonemes. What often happens is that the child either distorts the sound, as is frequently the case with /th/, or substitutes these sounds with the more familiar phonemes as they appear in his/her language--as it is the case with /th/ also being substituted with /f/ or /s/. In other instances these phonological differences will account for

morphological mistakes. Failure to hear final /s/ sound will cause the child's speech to be devoid of plurals. Failure to hear final /d/ causes failure to recognize simple past tense of regular verbs (e.g. walk, walked) aurally.

The complexity of the sound changes in Choctaw, such as the affixation process and the internal changes, can be another reason for the child's substitution of particular phonemes of English.

It is probable that some of these errors are not detected and corrected because there is an absence of correct models at home. In addition the regular classroom teacher has no training in identifying these problems or in how to provide guidance for correction: "Instructional techniques are not coordinated with the curriculum nor with the pupils' needs . . . The students are taught by a myriad of instructional techniques depending on the teacher rather than need . . ." (Fortune, 1985 p. 129)

Morphological Differences

Choctaw shares certain morphological characteristics with other American Indian languages. As J.D. Fletcher (1983) noted in his survey:

1) American Indian languages use inflections widely to indicate the syntactic role of

words.

2) Noun modifiers in American Indian languages are represented by inflections in nouns.

Some specific aspects of Choctaw morphology are noted here as it may be helpful in contrasting these to the different forms as they exist in English.

The Choctaw language depends on affixation and internal change for the different forms of words. The different functions of words in a sentence will be determined by either a prefix, an infix, or a suffix. The order of these changes depends on the function of the words in the sentence. (Nicklas, 1974)

1) Personal Pronouns: There are two kinds: Independent- uses no and shno, and dependent. The dependent cannot stand alone as words and are added to other words. Each set of pronouns has its own function with verbs and adjectives:

a) Passive-used with nouns, verbs and adjectives. When used with adjectives it will indicate the subject and also the subject of verbs denoting involuntary acts.

b) Free Dative-used with verbs to indicate the person for whom something is done.

c) Possessive-used as a substitute for a

noun with a possessive prefix.

d) Bound Dative-used for the person to whom something is transmitted--prefixed to verbs and some adjectives.

e) Active-this is used to indicate the " subject of verbs.

2) There is no distinction of gender in the third person singular.

3) Choctaw does not have a passive voice.

4) Nouns: The diminutive is formed from a compound the second element being oshi/ osi.

a) Possessives are indicated by prefixes.

b) Nouns of orientation (top-pakna,bottom-nota, front- tikba, back- anshaka, behind- anshaka) take passive prefixes.

5) Verbs:

a) Passive verbals may be formed from some active verbs by infixing -l or replacing -li with -a or both; (e.g. amo (to gather a crop) almo; bashli - basha (to gash) awashli (to fry) alwasha)

b) The active forms are transitive or causative verbs, while the passive forms may be verbs in some cases, adjectives in some cases, and either

verbs or adjectives in others.

c) The auxiliary verbs are used to express the starting, stopping, and finishing of some action.

d) The negative verb forms are paraphrastic or inflected.

6) Articles- The term article is used for morphemes and combinations of morphemes which can translate the English words "a", "an", "the", "this", "that". The articles take subject case (use of the suffix -t), the object case (use of suffix -n), the nominative case (use of suffix -sh), and a contrastive article o.

7) Conjunctions- They are like the articles in form. The form used depends on how far apart the two events happened.

8) Comparison- It is expressed by the suffix -lawinchi for sameness or equality; to express difference the suffix -inla is used.

Syntactic Features

Several differences between Choctaw syntax and English syntax possibly account for problems encountered by the children in the process of English acquisition:

1) In the Choctaw language the primary word order is Subject-Object-Verb. In English the primary word order is Subject-Verb-Object. This may account for some of the difficulty that Choctaw children have in differentiating aurally questions and statements.

2) Prepositions in Choctaw are postpositions affixed to the words they modify. Therefore idiomatic expressions dealing with prepositions in the English language are problematic to the Choctaw speaker.

3) The mode in Choctaw is essential in that it will determine the type of affix the verb will take:
   a) Imperative mode uses ho-, oh-, hoh-;
   b) Prohibitive mode uses ish- and -nna or hash- and -nna;
   c) Polite requests or suggestions use -k ma;
   d) A threat uses -k mak allah; and,
   e) The form for "Let" uses k- na.

4) The agreement is determined by the personal affix.

Semantics

The importance of determining the difference in the forms of words is expressed by Young (1967). "The structural-grammatical features of a language, and the

characteristic pattern in which they reflect the world of its speakers, constitute a framework that changes much more slowly; structural, grammatical features are analogous, in this context, to the fundamental elements of a culture--its institutions of religion, social and political organization, and values." (p.3) Having this notion helps one understand some of the resistance that is experienced from parents as their children learn a second language. It also helps in understanding the difference in meaning that speakers of different languages extract from the same expression. Young (1967) comments that different points of view will result from men's different systems. He cites an example of two men describing a scene in which the way their cultural communities conceive the world will determine the selection of appropriate terms in their respective language. One may describe a forest as the salient feature of the landscape without a description of what composes it, whereas the other man describes it in terms of the different types of trees. In a similar way for many cultures the world is viewed in more general, communal ways rather than detailed and individualistic.

On the other hand it is interesting to see how the media, present forms of entertainment, and Choctaw interaction with speakers of English, are creating a need in the children to expand their knowledge of L2.

The culture of the majority society is influencing their world as witnessed by the invasion of modern technology in the games that the children want to play and the toys they want to have.

In teaching lexicon it is important to recognize that when dealing with translations from one language into another there may be concepts that cannot be translated word by word. In modern Choctaw many words are borrowed from the English because there are no words in Choctaw that have equivalent meanings. These words correspond primarily to the technological aspect of the majority culture (e.g. television, microwave oven, rocket, etc).

When translating from English into Choctaw careful consideration must be given to the concepts which words describe. For example: amo has been translated as "to gather (a crop)". A native speaker will quickly point out that a distinction of crops is necessary. One can speak of "gathering" a crop of berries or cotton using the word amo , which connotes the motion of "picking"; however, the use of the word amo to describe the process of "pulling" corn would not make sense. The proper word for harvesting corn would be kawi which describes the process of "pulling" the ear from the corn stalk. Conversely, when translating from Choctaw into English one must show extreme care in order to preserve the original meaning. Therefore, in teaching lexicon, it is

extremely important that the context of the situation be taken into consideration. This can be done using ample illustrations and language experience activities.

A Language Sample

The following is a sample of a creative writing assignment from a Fluent English Speaking (LAS;Level 4) third grade child. After being given a magazine picture, the child was asked to write a description of what he saw in the picture. This sample was selected because it is representative of several mistakes exhibited in the children's speech and writing.

Henry

I saw a picture and I am going to tell it.
The picture look like a family is looking
up and there were one girl and one boy
and there were two adult looking up
to the sky and the dog but
it was not look up and there were
two young people and little kids and
one dog, The girl was coloring and
the boy was playing with the car and
the young people was looking at
picture. And the woman had a coffee
on the coffee table, And the man
was sitting by the lamp and the lamp
was on And the woman had her shoe
off her feet.

First notice the choice of the word 'saw' instead of the word 'looked'. For English speakers 'looked' is the right choice due to the subtle difference in meaning of the two words. The word 'see' represents the

movement of the eyes to a particular point. The perception and analysis of the object is the focus. The word "look" connotes a broader meaning. It suggests the movement of the eyes toward something. When the child uses "saw" instead of "looked" a deeper sense of the meaning of the action is expressed but the choice does not appear as correct usage.

Second, the use of the article "a" indicates a slight difference in meaning. One would expect the use of the article "the" which determines that the student is looking at a particular picture ,the one given him, rather than any picture in general. This indicates a more indefinite use than a general use.

Third, the student writes that he is going "to tell it" rather than "talk about it" . Even though he omitted "about", his choice of "tell" rather than "talk" is more accurate in conveying the meaning of what he is going to do. "Tell" expresses the idea of narrating or relating one's thoughts in a repertorial manner whereas "talk" refers more to a conversation.

Fourth, the semantic values of the child's language play an important role in what appears to be a diversion from the English speaker's customary use of words. The concrete meaning of words rather than the abstract seems to be grasped easier by the children. This is often the case when presented with idiomatic expressions. In particular the use of prepositions in

idiomatic expressions of the English language creates unique problems for the Choctaw child.

For example, in the second line the final "s" in the word "looks" is omitted and in the fourth line the final "s" in the plural "adults" is omitted. It was noted earlier in the paper that one of the phonological features in Choctaw is that with some exceptions only nouns end in a consonant and "s" is very rare. Therefore, it is not surprising that the failure in producing final "s" in speech will be exhibited in writing since these two skills are expressive language and closely related. As in this case, many phonological problems will create morphological problems.

The use of "one girl" and "one boy" rather than "a girl and a boy" is related to the morphological feature of Choctaw in which the number is affixed to the noun differentiating one, and specifying a plural of two or a plural of more than two (and not the general "they" in which it can refer to two or more than two with no distinction).

The final "s" in the plural "adults" is omitted as in the example discussed above. Note the spelling for the word "people" as "peaple" which could be caused by the phonological absence of the phoneme /I/ in the Choctaw. The use of "was" on the tenth line of the text, could be attributed to the influence of the Southern Nonstandard English and Black English. The

omission of the article before the word "picture" and the incorrect use of the article "a" before coffee in the eleventh line is a very common mistake in the children's speech and writing. As noted earlier the articles in Choctaw are indicated by suffixes and not individual words as in English. The repeated use of the conjunction "and" is another noticeable feature of the children's speech and writing.

Formal Evaluation

The Language Assessment Scales (De Avila & Duncan, 1982; Forms A and B) was administered to fifty students in kindergarten through third grade in the spring and fall of each of the past three years. The LAS was chosen because it was developed with a sound theoretical and empirical base in first and second language acquisition theory. However, it is acknowledged that the LAS makes no attempt to assess the child's total communicative competence across the multiplicity of sociolinguistic contexts that comprise the total language usage. (De Avila & Duncan, 1981) Eventhough the LAS is not a diagnostic test, it was felt that an item analysis would be an appropriate use of the test data. Further, the item analysis of the LAS was used only in aggregated form and not for individual assessment.

An analysis of the LAS scores supports our belief

that the different linguistic features between Choctaw and English may cause language interference in the acquisition of English. The following is a summary of the item analysis. Listed in the appendix are charts detailing these results.

A comparison between the scores of Non-English speakers (NES) and Fluent-English speakers (FES) in the "Minimal Pairs" section of the LAS shows that even though the number of incidences in which phonemes are missed has decreased in the FES group, a disproportionately high number of FES students still have a problem with certain phonems. The presence of phonemes in Choctaw which are absent in English accounts for some of the distortion and substitution exhibited by the children's speech.

An analysis of the reproduction of phonemes reveals that there is a relationship between the children's failure to discriminate between the phonemes aurally and their reproduction of the phonemes. Often the English sounds which are absent from the Choctaw become either distorted or replaced with more familiar Choctaw sounds. For example: the /th/ sound, either voiced or unvoiced, is usually distorted and the more familiar /ɬ/ sound, present in Choctaw is substituted for the English /th/ sound.

An analysis of the "Lexicon" section of the LAS confirms the expectation that only relevant, meaningful

vocabulary words can be recalled. The highest frequency of missed items on the lexicon section were by students in the NES group. This is partially explained by the fact that the children's experience with English at the NES level is very limited. For the majority of the children the need for English is minimal prior to attending school. Consequently, their English vocabulary is quite limited. The names of food items and household items are missed most frequently while words from the technology of the majority society, like train and bicycle, are rarely missed. This finding stresses the importance of the experiential background of children in acquiring the second language.

The items missed most frequently by the children in the "Comprehension" section of the LAS, confirms the belief that the linguistic differences between the two languages account for a majority of the language usage errors. An analysis of this section is more difficult because of the confounding effects of the phonological, syntactical, and morphological differences in the two languages. Nevertheless, the previous knowledge of Choctaw features helps to explain the high frequency with which some items are missed. It is apparent that many of the same areas causing problems in receptive language, are causing problems in expressive language.

In summary, an analysis of the LAS supports earlier research findings. (McCardle & Walton, 1984; Fletcher,

1983; Nicklas, 1974; Broadwell, 1981):

I. Phonological

1. Final stop devoicing for /d/ and /b/;
2. Frontal placement for fricatives;
3. Lateralization of fricatives; and,
4. Devoicing of initial and final /z/ and /v/.

II. Morphological

1. No final /s/ for the formation of plurals;
2. Different form of negatives;
3. Different forms for possessive, objective, and subjective pronouns; and,
4. Choctaw does not have a passive voice.

III. Syntax

1. Different word order in sentence construction (i.e. Subject-Verb-Object in English becomes Subject-Object-Verb in Choctaw); and,
2. Idiomatic expressions are problematic.

The supporting data obtained from an analysis of the LAS and the analysis of samples of the children's speech and writing suggests that emphasis be placed on the objectives of the curriculum that deal with:

1) Auditory discrimination and production of phonemes that do not exist in Choctaw;
2) Auditory discrimination and production of final consonants and consonant clusters;

3) Use of singular and plural noun forms;

4) Use of the third person singular;

5) Auditory discrimination and production of minimally contrasting vowel pairs and minimally contrasting consonant pairs;

6) Use of verb tense forms;

7) Use of articles and conjunctions

Developing the Curriculum

In developing the curriculum an extensive study of the Choctaw language was conducted in order to identify particular differences between Choctaw (L1) and English (L2). These differences were suspected of causing language interference in the acquisition of English. As a result of these studies and many hours of classroom instruction a design for an ESL curriculum has been developed.

The goal of the ESL curriculum is that the children develop "English proficiency in both basic interpersonal communicative skills and in cognitive /academic language proficiency through ESL within a bilingual program." (Rogers, 1982) As a result of ESL training it is expected that limited English proficient students will "acquire content knowledge appropriate to their age and grade level at the same time that they are developing

the English language skills necessary to perform successfully in a full English academic setting." (Rogers, 1982) Therefore, the objective of the ESL program is that the children will be able to:

1) Discriminate and utilize the phonemes of English;
2) Understand the meaning and distribution of English morphemes;
3) Acquire a functional English lexicon,
4) Incorporate English lexicon into expressive strings;
5) Synthesize these linguistic features into meaningful discourse; and,
6) Develop confidence in English usage through the methods of teaching English as a Second Language.

When a student enters the ESL program he/she is placed in one of three instructional modes: (1) Non-English Speaker (NES), (2) Limited English Speaker (LES), or (3) Fluent English Speaker (FES). The placement of the student is based upon the following considerations:

1) ESL Specialist assessment of the student's English proficiency;
2) Results from the Language Assessment Scales;
3) Grade placement;
4) Classroom teacher assessment; and,

5) Parent interview.

The curriculum for the ESL program was built around three instructional modes: NES, LES, and FES. The Non-English Speakers (NES) instructional mode was designed for children who have very limited English proficiency. These students usually test at Level 1 or 2 on the Language Assessment Scale (LAS) and are generally kindergarten students. For the NES students the major focus is on the receptive skills for listening. The concepts are introduced primarily at the knowledge level. When introducing the English sound system to the child, a functional lexicon is provided and attempts are made to create language experiences in which the child recalls what he/she has learned. The child then produces the sounds orally. In this manner a need for the use of the language has been created and language has become functional.

The second instructional mode, the Limited English Speakers (LES), was designed for children who have some command of English but still have difficulty understanding and using the English language. These students usually test at Level 3 on the LAS. The majority of the students in this instructional mode are first and second grade students. In this mode the English alphabet and sounds are taught. Decoding and encoding is also introduced. This is done in the context of situations that are meaningful such as stories, word games,

Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI), and new vocabulary. At this level listening skills continue to be emphasized, although the major focus is on speaking. The children are continually encouraged to express their thoughts orally. This is often practiced during conversation periods where the children share their feelings with each other and discuss recent personnel experiences. This activity provides the children with opportunities to combine receptive skills with expressive language. In this manner functional and meaningful discourse in English (L2) is expanded beyond traditional classroom instruction.

The third instructional mode was designed for the Fluent-English Speakers (FES). Students in this instructional mode can understand and speak English with a fair amount of proficiency; however, they need additional English instruction. Students taught in this instructional mode are generally second and third grade students. Activities are designed to encourage the students to read and extract information for comprehension. Stories are read and personal situations are discussed with emphasis being placed on listening for details. Emphasis is also given to the skill of creative writing by presenting activities in the classroom that generate responses conducive to the communication of observations, feelings, analysis, and synthesis.

The creativity of the ESL Specialist in generating materials is important. The materials available on the market have to be adapted at times according to the children's needs. An important aspect to consider is that materials and instruction should provide the children opportunities to experience the language. The activities should be functional and should lead to a meaningful discourse. In implementing the curriculum varied materials are used which facilitate both the receptive and expressive language skills' development. Currently in use in the classrooms are computers, language masters, records, games, VCRs, teacher-made materials and textbooks.

The general concepts included in the design of the curriculum used in the Choctaw ESL program are presented in the attached charts. Each instructional mode is designed to enable the children to:

1) Discriminate between minimal pairs;

2) Reproduce alphabet;

3) Sight read words, phrases, and sentences;

4) Listen to, understand, and repeat sounds, words; phrases, and sentences;

5) Distinguish questions from statements;

6) Make affirmative/negative statements, questions, commands, requests, suggestions;

7) Use tag questions and short/complete answers;

8) Answer and ask questions in all persons and

tenses;

9) Understand and use subjective, objective, and possessive pronouns;

10) Distinguish gender, person, and number of subjective, objective, and possessive pronouns;

11) Understand and use demonstratives;

12) Understand and make sentences using modals;

13) Understand and make questions with "Who", "What", "Where", "When", "How much", "How many", and "Whose";

14) Understand and use correctly singular and plural nouns, present participles used as subjects, and possessive nouns;

15) Understand and use correctly possessive, predicate,demonstrative, prenominal, sequential, comparative and superlative adjectives;

16) Understand and use correctly adverbs of frequency, prepositions of direction and place;

17) Understand and use correctly contractions;

18) Understand and use correctly conjunctions;

19) Recognize synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms;

20) Identify and use correctly names of colors, names of shapes, names for numbers 1-100, body parts, verbs of the five senses, names of people, names of objects, careers, names of animals, names of means of transportation, names of foods, names of clothing, names of rooms in a

house, calendar vocabulary, names of prepositions of place, direction, and time;

21) Describe characteristics, emotions, quantity;

22) Comprehend, reproduce, and answer questions about stories read aloud or silently;

23) Follow spoken and written directions; and,

24) Synthesize the above phonemic, lexical, and structural aspects in social conversation and academic situations with competence and self-confidence.

In conclusion, in designing a curriculum to assist children in acquiring English as a second language a thorough understanding of the differences between the first language and the second language is essential. With such an understanding, problems and concepts that may cause language interference and learning difficulties can be identified. Once these are understood an appropriate curriculum can be designed that will best meet the needs of bilingual children.

REFERENCES

Broadwell, G. (1986). Differences In Choctaw and English. (An Interview). Choctaw Department of Education, Philadelphia, MS.

Cook, M. J. & Sharp, M. A. (1966). Problems of Navajo speakers in learning English. Language Learning, 16, (1&2).

DeAvila, E. A. & Duncan, S. E. (1982). A Convergent Approach To Oral Language Assessment. California: Linguametrics Group.

Fletcher, J. D. (1983). What problems do American Indians have with English. Journal of American Indian Education.

Fortune, J. (1985). The Choctaw School Study. Mississippi: Choctaw Heritage Press.

Krashen, S. (1981). The Input Hypothesis. Paper presented at the Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics, Washington, D.C.

Lewis, T. (1981). Choctaw Orthography. Paper presented to the Choctaw Education Committee, Philadelphia, Mississippi.

McCardle, P. & Walton, J. H. (1984). Spoken English in Mississippi Choctaw Children. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association for Applied Linguistics, Baltimore, MD.

Nicklas, T. D. (1971). Choctaw Morphology. Oklahoma: Choctaw Bilingual Education Project.

Nicklas, T. D. (1974). The Elements of Choctaw. Doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Nicklas, T. D. (1979). Reference Grammar to the Choctaw Language. Southeastern Oklahoma State University, Choctaw Bilingual Education Program.

Robson, B. (1981). Alternatives in ESL an Literacy: Ban Vinai Asia Foundation Final Report. Arlington, Virginia: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Rogers, N. (1982). Title VII Proposal for intensive ESL for Choctaw Children. Philadelphia, Mississippi: Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians.

Young, R. W. (1967). English As A Second Language For Navajos. Albuquerque, New Mexico: Bureau of Indian Affairs.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Badger, H. A. (1971). A description of Mississippi Choctaw. Michigan: Michigan University Microfilms.

Bringer, B. (1977). Choctaw place-names in Mississippi. Mississippi Folklore Register, 2.

Brown, M. (1970). A sociolinguistic study of Choctaw. Southern Quarterly, 9.

Byington, C. (1870). Grammar of the Choctaw Language. In D.G. Brinton, MD (Ed.), Pennsylvania: McCalla & Stavely.

Byington, C. (1973). A Dictionary of the Choctaw Language. Oklahoma: Oklahoma City Indian Calendar, Inc. (Original work published 1915)

Cook, M. J. & Sharp, M. A. (1966). Problems of Navajo speakers in learning English. Language Learning, 16, (1&2).

Cushman, H. B. (1972). History of the Choctaw, Chickasaw and Natchez Indians. In A. Debo (Ed.), New York: Russell and Russell.

Downing, T. (1971). Chahta Anompa: An Introduction to the Choctaw Language. Oklahoma: Heritage Materials, Area Office of U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs.

Dundes, A. (1964). A Choctaw tongue-twister and two examples of Creek word play. International Journal of American Linguistics, 30, 194-196.

Eggan, F. (1937). Historical Changes in the Choctaw Kinship System. American Anthropology, 39, 34-52.

Fletcher, J. D. (1983). What problems do American Indians have with English. Journal of American Indian Education.

Fortune, J. (1985). The Choctaw School Study. Mississippi: Choctaw Heritage Press.

Haas, M. R. (1941)/ The Choctaw word for "Rattlesnake". American Anthropologist, 43, 129-132.

Jacob, B., Nicklas D., & Spencer, B.L. (1977). Introduction to Choctaw. Oklahoma: Southeastern Oklahoma State University.

Kenaell, L. A. (1969). Phases of reconstruction in the Choctaw Nation, 1865-1870. Chronicles of Oklahoma, 47,138-153.

Krashen, S. (1981). The Input Hypothesis. Paper presented at the Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics, Washington, D.C.

Lewis, T. (1981). Choctaw Orthography. Paper presented to the Choctaw Education Committee, Philadelphia, Mississippi.

McCardle, P. & Walton, J. H. (1984). Spoken English in Mississippi Choctaw Children. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association for Applied Linguistics, Baltimore, MD.

Nicklas, T. D. (1971). Choctaw Morphology. Oklahoma: Choctaw Bilingual Education Project.

Nicklas, T. D. (1974). The Elements of Choctaw. Doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Nicklas, T. D. (1979). Reference Grammar to the Choctaw Language, Southeastern Oklahoma State University, Choctaw Bilingual Education Program.

Redding, M. M. (1973). The Deep and Surface Structure of the Choctaw Clause. Texas: The University of Texas at Arlington.

Robson, B. (1981). Alternatives in ESL an Literacy: Ban Vinai Asia Foundation Final Report. Arlington, Virginia: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Rogers, N. (1982). Title VII Proposal for intensive ESL for Choctaw Children. Philadelphia, Mississippi: Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians.

Swanton, J. R. (1918). An early account of the Choctaw Indians. American Anthropological Association Memoirs, 5, 53-72.

Todd, T. L. (1975). Clause versus sentence in Choctaw. Linguistics, 161, 39-68.

Watkins, B. (1892). Complete Choctaw Definer: English with Choctaw Definition. Van Buren, AR: J.W. Baldwin.

Young, R. W. (1967). English As A Second Language For Navajos. Albuquerque, New Mexico: Bureau of Indian Affairs.

APPENDIX

ITEM ANALYSIS OF LAS SCORES

N=50

MINIMAL SOUND PAIRS

	RAW SCORE		PERCENT	
	INCORRECT	CORRECT	INCORRECT	CORRECT
ESPECIALLY-SPECIALLY	30	20	60	40
WHETHER-WEATHER	24	26	48	52
PEEL-PILL	22	28	44	56
VERY-BERRY	19	31	38	62
MOB-MOP	19	31	38	62
DEEP-DIP	18	32	36	64
SEND-SENT	15	35	30	70
THEN-DEN	15	35	30	70
MOLD-MOLD	13	37	26	74
SHOP-CHOP	13	37	26	74
RAIN-RAY	11	39	22	78
RICE-RISE	11	39	22	78
FIVE-FIVE	10	40	20	40
THUMB-THUMP	10	40	20	80
PET-PAT	10	40	20	80
YES-JESS	10	40	20	90
THEM-THEM	9	41	18	82
TEN-TAN	9	41	18	82
SING-SINK	8	42	16	84
THIN-TIN	8	42	16	84
CHAIN-CHAIN	8	42	16	84
RANG-RANG	7	43	14	86
HOP-UP	7	43	14	86
COLD-GOLD	7	43	14	86
BACK-BACK	6	44	12	88
YELLOW-YELLOW	5	45	10	90
MEAT-MEAT	5	45	10	90
SET-SET	4	46	8	92
HIT-HIT	4	46	8	92
SPUN-SPUN	4	46	8	92

ITEM ANALYSIS OF LAS SCORES

N=50

PHONEMES

	RAW SCORE		PERCENT	
	INCORRECT	CORRECT	INCORRECT	CORRECT
TH~THING,KÄTHY,THIN	31	19	62	38
TH THIS,FATHER,FURTHER	25	25	50	50
B RIB,CRAB,TUB	22	28	44	56
D TOAD,FOOD,GOOD	18	32	36	64
Z PEAS,BOYS,BUSY	14	36	28	72
V VERY,RIVERS MOVING	10	40	20	80
IY BEET,NEED,FEED	7	43	14	86
U LUCK,HUGGED,BUG	6	44	12	88
G BAG,GUM,GOOD	6	44	12	88
P PAINT,PIG,PARK	5	45	10	90
HW WHITE,WHITE,WHEAT	4	46	8	92
AE BAD,SAT,MAT	4	46	8	92
C^ CHEAP,CHEWED,CHOCOLATE	4	46	8	92
Y YES,YARD,YELLOW	3	47	6	94
sC STOP,SNAIL,SPIN	3	47	6	94
I HILL,BIT,CHIP	2	48	4	96
E BED,LET,PET	2	48	4	96
H HAM HAT HOT	1	49	2	98

ITEM ANALYSIS OF LAS SCORES

N=11

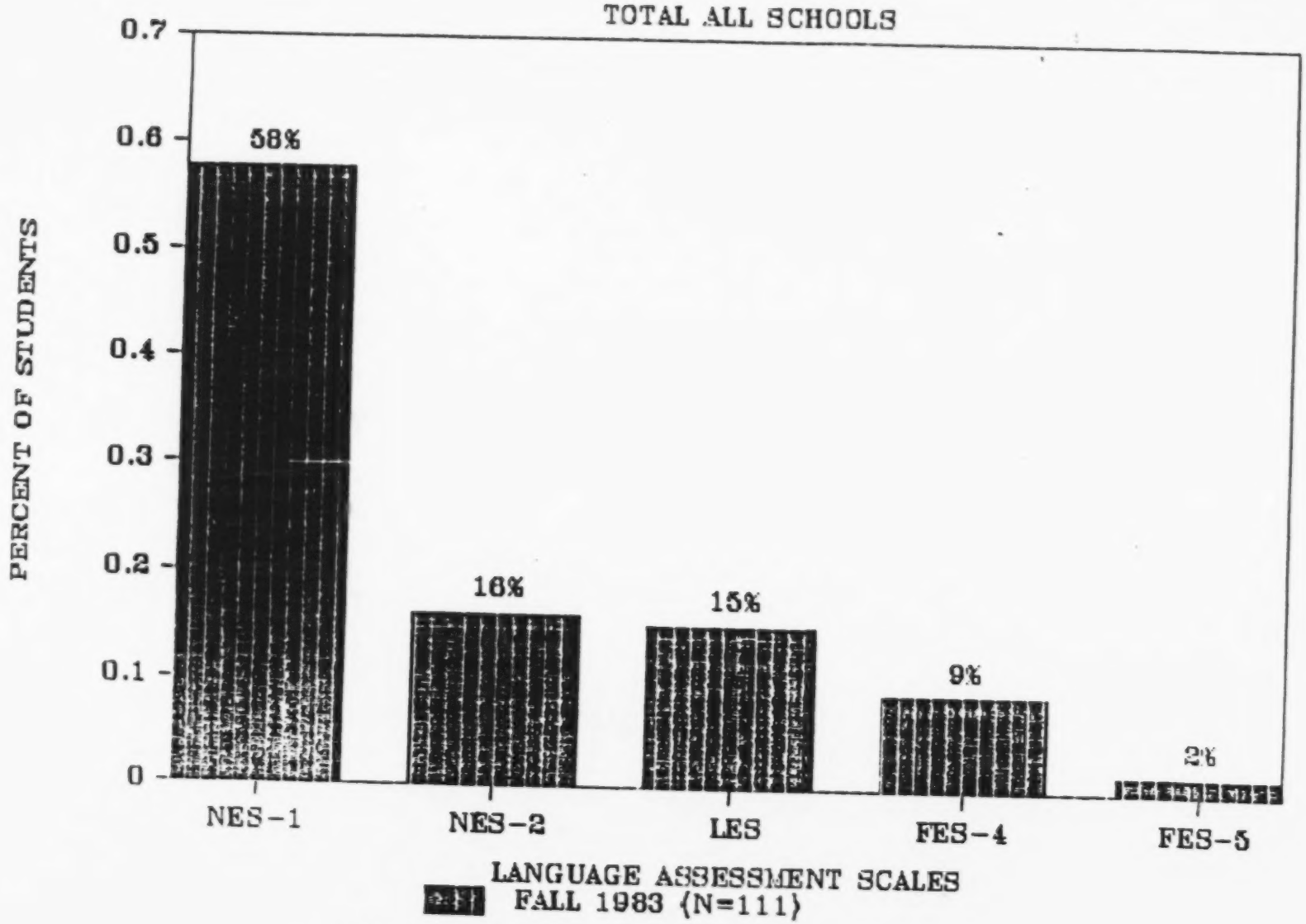
PHONEMES (NES LEVEL)	RAW SCORE INCORRECT	RAW SCORE CORRECT	PERCENT INCORRECT	PERCENT CORRECT
TH^THING,KATHY,THIN	10	1	91	9
TH THIS,FATHER,FURTHER	10	1	91	9
B RIB,CRAB,TUB	7	4	64	36
D TOAD,FOOD,GOOD	6	5	55	45
P PAINT,PIG,PARK	5	6	45	55
V VERY,RIVERS, MOVING	5	6	45	55
Z PEAS,BOYS,BUSY	4	7	36	64
U LUCK,HUGGED,BUG	4	7	36	64
G BAG,GUM,GOOD	3	8	27	73
C^ CHEAP,CHEWED,CHOCOLATE	3	8	27	73
IY BEET,NEED,FEED	3	8	27	73
AE BAD,SAT,MAT	3	8	27	73
HW WHITE,WHITE,WHEAT	3	8	27	73
sC STOP,SNAIL,SPIN	2	9	18	82
Y YES,YARD,YELLOW	2	9	18	82
E BED,LET,PET	2	9	18	82
I HILL,BIT,CHIP	1	10	9	91
H HAM,HAT, HOT	1	10	9	91

ITEM ANALYSIS OF LAS SCORES

N=20

PHONEMES
(FES LEVEL)

		RAW SCORE		PERCENT	
		INCORRECT	CORRECT	INCORRECT	CORRECT
TH	THIS,FATHER,FURTHER	6	14	30	70
B	RIB,CRAB,TUB	5	15	25	75
TH~	THING,KATHY,THIN	5	15	25	75
D	TOAD,FOOD,GOOD	4	16	20	80
Z	PEAS,BOYS,BUSY	1	19	5	95
Y	YES,YARD,YELLOW	1	19	5	95
G	BAG,GUM,GOOD	1	19	5	95
V	VERY,RIVERS, MOVING	1	19	5	95
HW	WHITE,WHITE,WHEAT	1	19	5	95
U	LUCK,HUGGED,BUG	1	19	5	95
IY	BEET,NEED,FEED	1	19	5	95
I	HILL,BIT,CHIP	0	20	0	100
H	HAM HAT HOT	0	20	0	100
sC	STOP,SNAIL,SPIN	0	20	0	100
E	BED,LET,PET	0	20	0	100
AE	BAD,SAT,MAT	0	20	0	100
C^	CHEAP,CHEWED,CHOCOLATE	0	20	0	100
P	PAINT,PIG,PARK	0	20	0	100


TOTAL ALL SCHOOLS
PERCENT OF STUDENTS
0.7
0.6
0.5
0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1
0
58%
16%
15%
9%
2%
NES-1
NES-2
LES
FES-4
FES-5
LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT SCALES
FALL 1983 (N=111)

ESL CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR CHOCTAW CHILDREN IN GRADES K - 3
(1st NINE-WEEK TERM)

NON-ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Knowledge/Recall)	Subjective Pronouns	Present-tense (Habitual)	Identify Family Members	Questions with "Who"	Possessive Pronouns	Color Recognition	Prepositions of Place	Pronunciation Final [s],[b] [th]	Identify Objects	Count Objects	Recognize Numbers	Name Numbers	Greetings	Leave Takings
LIMITED ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Comprehension/ Recognition)	Identify Self & Others	Subjective Pronouns	Greetings	Leave Takings	Identify Family Members	Describe Home Activities	Present Progressive	Identify Rooms In The House	Questions With "What"	Simple Answers; yes-no	Distinguishing Between Real Objects -People and Pictures Of Them	Identify Same/ Different Objects and Shapes	Name Letters Of The Alphabet	Identify Capital Letters
FLUENT ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Application - Analysis/ Communication)	Identify Clothing For Different Weather	Use Of Possessive Nouns (s';'s)	Use Of Possessive Pronouns	Questions With "Whose"	Punctuation (ie. . , ? ; : !)	Determiners	Paragraph Structure	Recognize And Use Present Progressive In Listening And Reading	Use Of Present Progressive In Conversation And Writing	Compound Subjects	Predicate Adjectives	Describe Situations	Conjunctions "Because", "Since"	Describe Persons

ESL CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR CHOCTAW CHILDREN IN GRADES K - 3
(2nd NINE-WEEK TERM)

NON-ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Knowledge/Recall)	Identify Clothing	Questions With "What"	Singular Nouns	Form Plurals By Adding "s"	Make Decisions: Yes; No	Present Tense Of Verb "Want"	Questions With "Can"	Pronouns: Objective Case	Describe Playground Activities	Negative Sentences	Present Progressive	Recognize Objects In A Playground	Name Objects On Playground	Questions With "Where"
LIMITED ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Comprehension/ Recognition)	Identify Rhyming Words Aurally	Identify Rhyming Words From Pictures	Discriminate Aurally Final [t]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [th]; Final [th]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [k]; Final [k]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [p]; Final [p]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [g]; Final [g]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [n] ; Final [n]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [i]; Final [i]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [b]; Final [b]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [v] ; Final [v]	Discriminate Aurally Initial [f] ; Final [f]	Questions With "Where" & "What"	Recognize Present Progressive
FLUENT ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Application - Analysis/ Communication)	Future Tense With "Going to"	Prepositions Of Place	Direct Object Pronouns	Indirect Object Nouns Following "To"	Adjectives: Superlative	Adjectives: Comparative	Tell Time	Calendar	Read Short Stories	Re-tell Short Stories	Discuss Short Stories	Infinitive: "Like to . . ."	Impersonal - "It's"	Adjectives Ending in "y"

ESL CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR CHOCTAW CHILDREN IN GRADES K - 3
(3rd NINE-WEEK TERM)

NON-ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Knowledge/Recall)	Present Tense Of Verb "Like"	Partitives	Recognize Simple Past Tense	Recognize Rooms In A House	Describe Activities At Home	Make Polite Requests	Rejoinders	Recognize Different Foods	Name Eating Utensils	Name Kitchen Utensils					
LIMITED ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Comprehension/ Recognition)	Identify Money	Recognize Numbers : 1 - 100	Count 1 - 100	Tell Time	Understand The Organization Of A Day	Describe The Activities Of The Day	Name Days Of The Week	Name The Months Of The Year	Objective Pronouns	Describe Annual Events	Identify Different Clothing For Different Weather	Recognize Future Tense	Describe A Scene	Recognize Left & Right Location	
FLUENT ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Application - Analysis/ Communication)	Describe Directional Movement	Name Wild Animals	Name Domestic Animals	Sequence Events	Impersonal: There	Describe Outdoor Activities	Read For Information	Simple Past Of Common Irregular Verbs	Commands	Polite Request	Intensifiers: "Too"	Adverbs Of Time	Adverbs Of Manner	Asking/Answering Questions With "When"	

ESL CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR CHOCTAW CHILDREN IN GRADES K - 3
(4th NINE-WEEK TERM)

NON-ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Knowledge/Recall)	Adjectives Of Feelings	Describe A Physical State	Conjunctions: "And", "But", "Or"	Conditional	Identify Feelings	Name Feelings	Simple Commands	Recognize Past Tense (Irregular)	Describe Past Events	Recognize Different Seasons	Name Different Seasons	Describe Different Scenes	Recognize Present Progressive		
LIMITED ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Comprehension/ Recognition)	Identify Professions	Prepositions: Location	Describe Habitual Activities	Identify Farm Animals	Identify Jungle Animals	Identify Forest Animals	Identify House Pets	Re-tell A Story	Express Emotions Orally	Identify Vehicles	Identify Months Of The Year	Make An Appointment	Use Ordinal Numbers: First Through Thirtieth		
FLUENT ENGLISH SPEAKERS (Application - Analysis/ Communication)	Affirmative Tag Questions	Negative Tag Questions	Questions With "Do";"Does"	Questions With "Don't"; "Doesn't"	Name Careers & Professions	Describe Jobs & Duties	Future Tense With "Will" & "Won't"	Describe Future Action	Questions With "How Much?"	Past Progressive	Questions With "Which"	Present Participles As Subjects	Verb "To Be"	Verb "To Have"	Passive Sentences

Identify Parts of the Body	Simple Commands	Adjectives	Answer Simple Questions: Yes, No

Name And Identify Lowercase Letters	Count To 30	Associate Capital With Lowercase Letters	Discriminate Between Sounds	Associate Sounds With Symbols

Describe Objects	Use Questions With "Where" And "Did"	Simple Past Tense

Expressing Possession	Pronouns: Possessive Case	Determiners	Recognize Objects In A Classroom	Identify Objects In A Classroom

Simple Past Tense (Regular and Irregular common verbs)	Pronounce Final (s)	Questions With "How Many?"	Identify Parts of the Body	Give Simple Commands	Adjectives	Questions With "Who"	Describe Physical Characteristics	Conjunctions: "Either/Or", "Neither/Nor"	Recognize Right	Recognize Left	Follow Directions	Give An Apology	Describe Objects: Compare & Contrast	Identify Classroom Objects	Describe Objects Using Colors	Possessive Pronouns
Describe Seasonal Weather	Review Pronunciation/ Auditory Discrimination Of /s/ & /z/	/s/ /z/	/z/	/z/	/z/	/ɪz/	✗ /ɪz/	/ɪz/	/z/	/z/	Use Five Senses for Descriptions	Linking Verbs	Sequence Of Adjectives			

Identify Food And Food Groups	Identify Eating Utensils	Partitives	Questions With "Do You . . .?"	Make Polite Requests	Make Suggestions	Infinitive: "Like to"

Ask / Answer Questions With "How"	Habitual Action: Simple Present	Demonstrative Adjectives	Prepositions Of Time: After	Prepositions Of Time: Before

Active Sentences	Antonyms	Synonyms	Contractions
46			

BEST COPY AVAILABLE